

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To support the analysis, some references are reviewed which include morphology, words formation, compound words and previous studies.

#### **A. Morphology**

Morphology is derived from a Greek word *morph* that means shape or form and *logos* that means knowledge. Morphology implies knowledge of morph or what so called, the building element of word. Morphology, according to Yule, is the study of forms, which was originally used in biology, but since the mid nineteenth century, it has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyzed all the basic 'elements' which are used in language.<sup>9</sup> According to Gleason, morphology comprises, first, the analysis of paradigms of the four parts of speech; noun, pronoun, verb, and adjective involving largely the discussion on the inflectional suffixes and their allomorphs.<sup>10</sup> The second will be the analysis of the formation of stems and words that are not inflected.

Fromkin states that morphology is the study of internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed.<sup>11</sup> Matthews in his book '*Morphology: An Introduction to the theory of word structure*', said that

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<sup>9</sup> Yule, G. 1999. *The Study of Language: An Introduction*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

<sup>10</sup> Gleason, Jr. H.A. 1961. P 96-97. *An Introduction To Descriptive Linguistics*. New York, Chicago. San Fransisco. Toronto. London. Rinehart and Winston.

<sup>11</sup> Fromkin, Robert Romdman. 1997. *An Introduction to Language*. Canada

morphology is simply term for the branch of linguistics which is concerned with the 'forms of words' in different uses and constructions.<sup>12</sup> Furthermore, Charles Hockett in his book '*A course in Modern Linguistics*' says that morphology includes the stock of segmental morphemes, in the ways in which words are built out of them. Based on the definitions above, it can be concluded that morphology is the study of the morphemes of language and how they are combined to make words.<sup>13</sup>

### B. Morpheme

There are various definitions of morpheme given by linguists. Fromkin says that morpheme may be defined as the minimal linguistic sign, a grammatical unit in which there is an arbitrary union of sound and a meaning that cannot be further analyzed.<sup>14</sup> Webster defines morpheme as a meaningful linguistics unit whether a free form (as *pin, child, load, pray*) or bound form (as the *-s* of *pins*, the *-hood* of *childhood*, the *un-* and *-er* of *unleader*) that contains no smaller meaningful parts.<sup>15</sup> To make better understanding, definitions with some examples are given. The word *unhappy* consists of two morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is *happy*; another minimal unit of meaning is *un-* (meaning 'not'). The word *apples* also contain two morphemes. There is one minimal unit of meaning *apple* and a

<sup>12</sup> Fromkin, Robert Romdman.1997.p 38. *An Introduction to Language*. Canada

<sup>13</sup> Hockett, C.F 1959. P 15. *A Course In Modern Linguistics*. New York: The Macmillan Company.

<sup>14</sup> Fromkin, Robert Romdman.1999. p 67. *An Introduction to Language*. Canada

<sup>15</sup> Webster.1993.p 1471. *Webster's World University Company*, Washington. Publisher's Company Inc.

minimal unit of grammatical function –s (indicating plural). In accordance to those explanations of morpheme, it can be said that morpheme is the smallest functioning unit of meaning or grammatical function in the composition of words. Thus, morpheme serves as the element from which words are built.

### 1. Types of Morphemes

Linguists divide morphemes into two types: free and bound morphemes. For further explanations, the writer would like to describe it as follows:

#### a. Free and Bound Morpheme

Yule in says that morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words such as *sit, walk, door, etc* are called free morphemes. In contrast, morphemes that cannot normally stand alone, but typically attached to another form, e.g. *re-, ist, -ed, -s, etc* are defined as bound morphemes. Furthermore, she also explains that free morphemes fall into two categories. The first is that set of *nouns, adjectives, and verbs* are categorized as **lexical morphemes** and some of the examples are *boy, man, house, beautiful, and bad*. The other category of free morphemes is called **functional morphemes**. This set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. The examples are *and, but, when, because, near, in the, that, etc*. Bound morphemes also can be categorized into two types. First is **derivational morphemes** which include suffixes such as the *-er* in *walker*, the *-ment* in *development*, the

-able in *believable*. It will also include prefixes such as *re-*, *pre-*, *ex-*, *un-*, *il-*, *im-*, and so on. The second type is **inflectional morphemes** which are used to show if word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form. To note that in English all inflectional morphemes are suffixes.<sup>16</sup>

#### b. Words

The existence of word cannot be separated from the existence of language because only by words we can produce the language to convey our thought and feeling to other people. So, what do the words mean actually? Fromkin, Blair and Collin say that a particular string of sounds must be united with a meaning and meaning must be united with specific sounds in order for the sounds or the meaning to be a word in our mental dictionaries.<sup>17</sup> According to Brinton, a word has an internal cohesion and indivisible by other units; a word may be modified only externally by the addition of suffixes and prefixes.<sup>18</sup>

More detailed explanation of words analyzed with the same terminology in different sentences is given in the following example:

A simple word has one free root, e.g. *head, door*.

A complex word has one free root and one or more bounds morphs, e.g.

*Unhand, handbook, handgun*.

<sup>16</sup> Yule, G. 1999. *The Study of Language: An Introduction*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

<sup>17</sup> Fromkin., Victoria. 1999.p60 *An Introduction To Language*. Ortanda Florida. Horcourt.

<sup>18</sup> Brinton, Laurerj. 1987. P79. *The Structure of Madern English: A Linguistics Introduction*. Amsterdam. John Benjamin's Publishing Company.

A compound complex word has two free roots and associated bound morphs, e.g. *handwriting*.

From those above definition, it can be concluded that words are units of language that represents a sound with particular meaning.

### **C. Morphological Processes**

Yule argues that "morphological process is the process of forming words by connecting one morpheme with another one".<sup>19</sup> There are some word formation processes: affixation, reduplication, internal change, suppletion, zero modification, acronym, clipping, blending, coinage and back formation.

#### **a. Affixation**

Johannes AP stated that the most of morphological work in English is performed by affixes: bound morphemes (usually short) that are added to free morphemes.<sup>20</sup> There are basically three kinds of affixes: prefixes (added to the beginning of free morphemes or other prefixes), suffixes (added to the end of free morphemes or other suffixes) and infixes (inserted into a morpheme). English has many prefixes and suffixes but it has no infixes.

#### **b. Reduplication**

Reduplication is the process of repetition of a word. There are two kinds of reduplication: complete and partial reduplication. Complete

<sup>19</sup> Yule, G. 1999.p52. *The Study of Language: An Introduction*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

<sup>20</sup> Johannes AP.1997.p130. *English Morphology Materials*. STIBA Malang.

reduplication involves a reduplication of the entire word. An example of complete reduplication is *anak* (a child) and *anak-anak* (many children) from Indonesian language. Partial reduplication involves a reduplication of only part of the word, for example, *mahuta* (to sleep) and *ma-mahuta* (to sleep for plural) from Motu language.

In English, sometimes, there is a slight difference between two constituents in complete reduplication as in *razzle-dazzle*, *flip-flop*, *hurdy-gurdy*.

### c. Internal Change

According to Johannes, besides adding affixes to a morpheme (affixation) or copying all part of the morpheme (reduplication) to make a morphological distinction, it is also possible to make morpheme internal modifications. There are only a few examples of this in English.

1. Although the usual pattern of plural formation is to add an inflectional morpheme, some English plurals make an internal modification: *man* become *men*, *woman* become *women*, *goose* become *geese* and so on.
2. The usual pattern of past and past participle formation is to add an affix, but some verbs also show an internal change: *ring-rang-rung*; *sing-sang-sung*, etc.
3. Some words class changes are also indicated only via internal changes: *strife-strive*; *teeth-teethe*; *breath-breathe*; *life-live (V)*: or *life-live (adj)* and the others.

**d. Suppletion**

Still according to Johannes, languages that employ morphological processes to form words will normally have regular, productive way of doing so according to one or more of the processes discussed above. They might also have some smaller classes of words that are irregular because they mark the same morphological distinction by another of these processes. Sometimes, however, the same distinction can be represented by two different words that do not have any systematic difference in form they are exceptions to all of the processes. This completely irregular situation is called *suppletion*. An example of suppletion is *good-better-best*.

**e. Zero Modification**

Zero modification is a change of word that does not appear but it can be identified from the meaning of the word. The example of zero modification is the existence of "*hit*", "*put*" (past participle), "*sheep*", "*deer*", "*fish*", *etc.* (plural). Here the affixes do not appear.

**f. Acronym**

According to Randolph and Sydney, acronym is word formed from the initial letters (or larger parts of words). This is the process to create a new word by spelling the word in the first letter of some other complete words. For example "*radar*" derives from Radio detecting and ranging,

and "laser" derives from Light Amplification (by) stimulated emission (of radiation).<sup>21</sup>

#### g. Clipping

Clipping means to cut or to shorten. Words are frequently shortened. It occurs when a word or more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form. Perrin stated that clipping is words made by dropping a syllable or more from one word. Some examples of clipped words are "ad"; the original word is "advertisement", "flu", the original word is "influenza", "Ben"; the original word is Benjamin.<sup>22</sup>

#### h. Blending

Yule explained that blending is the combining two separate forms to produce single new term by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it into the end of another word.<sup>23</sup>

Gatherer noticed blending as a word composed of parts of other words, usually the beginning of one word and the end of another. The examples; "selectric" comes from *select* and *electric* and "brunch" comes from *breakfast* and *lunch*.

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<sup>21</sup> Randolp Quirk and Greenbaum Sydney.1973. *A University Grammar of English*. England: Longman Group Limited, Brunt, Mill, Harriow, Essex EM 20, 2JE.

<sup>22</sup> Perrin. G. Porter. 1972. *Reference Handbook of Grammar and Usage*. New York: William Morrow Company Inc.

<sup>23</sup> Yule, G. 1999. *The Study of Language: An Introduction*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.



**i. Coinage**

According to Falk coinage is entirely original creating of utilizing either words from another languages or morphemes or words already in use in one's language. It is the invention of totally new terms and one of the less common processes of word formation in English. Examples of coinage are *Nokia* and *Aqua*.

**j. Back Formation**

Back formation is known as a very specialized type of reduction process. Typically, a word of one part of speech (usually noun) is reduced to form another word of different part of speech (usually verb). In general, English speakers would form verbs from nouns, such as "*to televise*" (*television*), "*to evaluate*" (*evaluation*), and "*to explain*" (*explanation*).

**D. Compound Words**

One of the most common sources of new words in English is morphological process named compound word. To clarify what compound word is, some definitions are quoted from some of linguistics books. Rachmadie defines that compounds are formed by combining two or more words into one unit with perceptible lexical meaning.

Compound word consists of addition of stems to stems that a word is formed by the combination of two independent words. The parts of compound can be free morpheme, derivative word, or another compound, in nearly any

combination,<sup>24</sup> for example, *girlfriend*, *blackbird*, *aircraft*, and *lifeguard*. Meanwhile, Rahardjo gives a more complete definition about compound word in his book *Ikhtisar Tata Bahasa Indonesia*. He says that “compound word is a combination of two words or more which are very closely related, so that after being combined, it forms a unity and produces new meaning.”<sup>25</sup> Marchan in Anderson stated that compounding occurs when two or more words are combined into a morphological unit.<sup>26</sup> It refers to the combination of two free form or words that have an otherwise independent existence.

In compound word, each language has its own patterns. These may be quite varied. Nevertheless, every language places definite restrictions on the permissible types. One cannot put any two stems of a language together and necessarily have a new word. For example, in English the word *line* and the conjunction *whether* are combined to form compound *line-whether*. Although English does have many compound words pattern, this is not one of permissible types. From the explanation above about compound words, it can be concluded that a compound word is joining two or more separate words to produce a new meaning.

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<sup>24</sup> Nida, EA.1982.p1. *Morphology; The Descriptive Analysis of Words*. The University of Michigan Press. Michigan An Arbor.

<sup>25</sup> Rahardjo, M. 1983.p159. *Ikhtisar Tata bahasa Indonesia*

## 1. Kinds of Compound Words

Brinton says that there is almost no limit to the kinds of combinations of compounds that occur in English,<sup>27</sup> as the following list of compounds shows: adjective, noun and verb. Examples of adjective are *bittersweet*, *poorhouse* and *high room*. Examples of noun are *headstrong*, *rainbow* and *spoon feed*. Then these are examples of verb: *carryall*, *pickpocket* and *sleepwalk*.

He also states that when the two words are in the same grammatical category, the compounds will be in this category: noun + noun: *girlfriend*, *fighter-bomber*, *paperclip*, *crane-driver*; adjective + adjective: *icy-old*, *red-hot* and *worldly-wise*. In many cases, when the two words fall into different categories, the class of the second or final word will be the grammatical category of compounds: noun + adjective: *headstrong*, *watertight*, *lifelong*; verb + noun: *pickpocket* and *daredevil*. On the other hands, compounds formed with a preposition are in the category of the noun prepositional part of the compounds: *overtake*, *hanger on*, *afterbirth*, and *downfall*. Fromkin, Blair, and Collins explained that there are three kinds in spelling compound words:<sup>28</sup> Open, hyphenated and idiosyncratic compound. Open means that the compound words are spelled with a space between the two words such as *day laborer*, *walking stick*, *filling cabinet* etc. Hyphenated defined as compound word which is spelled by using mark (-) to join two words

<sup>27</sup> Brinton, Laurerj. 1987. P95. *The Structure of Madern English: A Linguistics Introduction*. Amsterdam. John Benjamin's Publishing Company

<sup>28</sup> Fromkin., Victoria. 1999. P81. *An Inroduction To Language*. Ortanda Florida. Horcourt

together. For example: *cigarette-case*, *egg-up*, *self-confidence*, etc. Idiosyncratic means that the compound is spelled with no separation like *blackbird*, *rainbow*, and *pickpocket*.

**a) Kinds of Compound Word Based on Semantic Criteria.**

Anderson says that compounds are often divided into for semantics types: endocentric, exocentric, appositional and copulative or *copulative*. An endocentric compound consists of a head, i.e. the categorical part that contains the basic meaning of the whole compound, and modifiers, which restrict this meaning. For example, the English compound *doghouse*, where house is the head and dog is the modifier, is understood as a house intended for a dog. The other definition said where the second element is the grammatical headword and the first is a modifier as in word *wristwatch* (where wrist modifies watch). Endocentric compounds are hyponyms of the head word.

Exocentric compound are hyponym of some unexpressed semantic head (e.g. a person, a plant, an animal...), and their meaning often cannot be transparently guessed from its constituent parts. For example the English compound *white-collar* is neither a kind of collar nor a white thing. Where hyponymy of this kind does not exist, as in *scapegoat*, the compound is exocentric.

Where the hyponymy is bidirectional, as in *sofa-bed* which is kind of sofa or kind of radio, these are known as appositional compound.

Copulative compounds are compounds which have two semantic head, such as *Slater-Weker*, *Austin-Rover*, or *Alsace-Lorine*.

Where compound elements name separate entities neither of which might seem to grammatical headword, then these are copulative compounds, as in names such as *Slater-Weker*, *Austin-Rover*, or *Alsace-Lorine*.

## 2. The Characteristics of Compound Words

There are some characteristics in compound words; the characteristics are showing the difference between one character with other character in compound words. The characteristics of compound word are:

### a. Phonological Criteria

Phonologically, compounds can often be identified as having a main stress on the first element and a secondary stress on the second element. Hence the compound *blackbird* ('a species of bird') has the stress ' \_ , \_ in contrast with, \_ '- for *blackbird* ('a bird which is black'), which is not the normal stress-pattern for noun phrases consisting of pre-modifying adjective and a noun head. On the other hand, many speakers have a secondary stress on the first element in, for example, *headmaster*, and *sociolinguistics*.

### b. Semantic Criteria

Semantically, compounds can be seen to be isolated from ordinary synthetic constructions by having a meaning which may be related to but

cannot simply be inferred from the meaning of its parts. For example, a *darkroom* (a room used for photographic processing) is not just 'dark room', since most *dark rooms* are not *darkrooms*. A *hothouse* ('a heated glass building for growing plants') is a type of building with a special use, but its element has enough in common with uses of the word *house* for us to recognize the resemblance. On the other hand, it is difficult to see anything in common between the ordinary noun *dog* and the second element in the compound *hot dog* ('a sausage in a sandwich')

### c. Compound Word vs Phrase

Actually both phrases and compounds consist of more than free root. However, unlike phrase, when the free roots are joined in a single syntactic unit but remain distinct words, a compound is considered a single word.<sup>29</sup> Moreover the semantics of the compounds are not very helpful; it is considered compounds, since they are single words, to have a semantic unity, but phrases may have equally cohesive semantics. A better means of differentiation in internal coherence since compounds are externally modified (at the single word boundary) whereas phrases may be internally modified (at any of the word boundaries). For example, the plural of the compound *manhole* is *manholes* not men hole with the plural marker at the end, whereas the plural of the phrase man-of-war is *men-of-war* not man-of-wars with the plural marker internal to the phrase. Nimalasari says that compounding forms words and not just

<sup>29</sup> Brinton, Laurerj. 1987. *The Structure of Madern English: A Linguistics Introduction*. Amsterdam. John Benjamin's Publishing Company.

syntactic phrases by the difference between the stress patterns in words and phrases.<sup>30</sup> Compounds which have words in the same order as phrases have primary stress on the first word only, while the individual words in phrases have independent primary stress. For example, the word *blackbird*, it is categorized as compounds otherwise *black bird* is categorized as phrases. Other compounds can have phrasal stress patterns, but only if they cannot possible be phrase. These might also have stress on the first word only. For example:

*Easy-going easy going*

*Man-made man-made*

The syntactic category of a word created by compounding depends on some extent on the categories of the part. For example:

Noun-noun    adjective-adjective

*Houseboat stone-deaf*

*Playground red-hot*

### **E. Previous Studies**

There are some studies that discuss Javanese, Japanese and English compound words. Muhibulloh in his thesis '*A Morphological Study on Javanese Compounding Idiomatic Expression*' discusses Javanese Compound Idiomatic Expression, (2000). The result of his study is that there are seven

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<sup>30</sup> Nirmalasari. 1998. *An Introduction to Linguistics*. Jakarta: Proyek Pengembangan Lembaga Pendidikan dan Tenaga Kependidikan.

constructions of Javanese compound idiomatic expression. They are: Noun + Noun, Noun + Adjective, Noun + Verb, Adjective + Noun, Verb + Noun, Verb + Verb, Adverb + Adverb.

Tutik Mulyani in her thesis *a descriptive Study on Javanese Compound Word Used in Panjebar Semangat magazine*, (1997). She emphasizes on Javanese Compound word. The result of her study is that in the magazine there are fourteen constructions of Javanese compound word. They are: Noun + Noun, Noun + Verb, Noun + Adjective, Verb + Verb, Verb + Noun, Verb + Adjective, Adjective + Noun, Adjective + Adjective, Adjective + Adverb, Pronoun + Noun, Pronoun + Adverb, Pronoun + Conjunction, Conjunction + Adverb, and Preposition + Verb Compound Word.

She also described the part of speech formed by those constructions. For example, Noun + Noun compound word can form noun and verb, Noun + Verb compound word forms noun, and so on. In addition Firdausa wrote her thesis under title *A study On Japanese Compound Words*. She focused on Japanese Compound words. She concluded that compound words mostly occur in Japanese. Many Japanese word are the result of compounding, usually the changes occur in the combination of verb and other word. If a verb is combined to other word, the function of verb changes into noun. It is followed by the change of the last syllabic vowel. The changes of the vowels are followed by the changes of part of speech. Compound in Japanese sometimes changes the part of speech and sometimes it does not.



In addition Muhammad Bisyrul Hafy investigates 'English Compound Word Used in *Hello Magazine*'. In his study there are eight categories of compounding word that can be found, they are noun + noun, adjective + noun, adjective + verb, adjective + preposition, adjective + adverb, noun + verb, noun + adjective, adverb + noun, verb + noun, verb + adverb, preposition + noun, preposition + verb which include three types of compound words. Those are solid, open and hyphenated compound word.

This study examines English compound words, focusing on the construction and kind of compound words found in Column People at *The Jakarta Post* Newspaper since May 30<sup>th</sup> to June 3<sup>rd</sup> 2013"